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1 Effects of allochthonous DOM input on microbial composition and nitrogen cycling
2 genes at two contrasting estuarine sites

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19 Summary

20 Heterotrophic bacteria are important drivers of nitrogen (N) cycling and the processing of
21 dissolved organic matter (DOM). Projected increases in precipitation will potentially cause
22 increased loads of riverine DOM to the Baltic Sea and likely affect the composition and function of
23 bacterioplankton communities. To investigate this, the effects of riverine DOM from two different
24 catchment areas (agricultural and forest) on natural bacterioplankton assemblages from two
25 contrasting sites in the Baltic Sea were examined. Two microcosm experiments were carried out,
26 where the community composition (16S rRNA gene sequencing), the composition of a suite of N
27 cycling genes (metagenomics), and the abundance and transcription of *amoA* genes (quantitative
28 PCR) were investigated. The river water treatments evoked a significant response in bacterial
29 growth, but effects on overall community composition and on the representation of a suite of N
30 cycling genes were limited. Instead, treatment effects were reflected in the prevalence of specific
31 taxonomic families, specific N related functions, and in the transcription of *amoA* genes. The study
32 suggests that bacterioplankton responses to changes in the DOM pool are constrained to part of
33 the bacterial community, whereas most taxa remain relatively unaffected.

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38 Introduction

39 Marine heterotrophic bacterioplankton process dissolved organic matter (DOM), thereby
40 mineralizing nutrients essential for growth of phytoplankton and affecting overall productivity in
41 marine waters (Azam *et al.*, 1983). Among nutrients, nitrogen (N) is a primary constituent of
42 various cellular macromolecules, and the availability of N is commonly a limiting factor for primary
43 and secondary production in diverse marine systems (Ryther and Dunstan, 1971; Bristow *et al.*,
44 2017). In marine coastal systems, the release of dissolved inorganic N (DIN) through the
45 degradation of dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) can be orders of magnitude higher than the input
46 of DIN from land (Knudsen-Leerbeck *et al.*, 2017). Hence, N released or acquired through microbial
47 degradation of nitrogenous DOM is an important N source for bacterioplankton and
48 phytoplankton growth (Bronk *et al.*, 2007).

49 Bacterioplankton control not only the accessibility of N through DOM processing, but
50 also regulate the oxidative state of N present in the environment through a series of oxidative and
51 reductive processes. Consortia of microorganisms mediate key steps in the marine nitrogen cycle
52 (Falkowski *et al.*, 2008), including e.g. ammonification, nitrogen fixation, nitrification, and
53 denitrification (Zehr and Ward, 2002), and ultimately determine the availability of N for higher
54 trophic levels, e.g. phytoplankton. For instance, the form and oxidation level, e.g. whether
55 inorganic N is available as ammonia or nitrate, may affect both the productivity and the
56 composition of the phytoplankton community (Glibert *et al.*, 2016).

57 In estuarine environments, riverine DOM is an important source of highly labile N
58 (Seitzinger *et al.*, 2005; Bronk *et al.*, 2007). The characteristics of the riverine DOM may depend on
59 the catchment area and on season. Consequently, it is conceivable that the riverine input,

60 particularly in N limited environments, selects for bacterioplankton capable of hydrolyzing
61 nitrogenous DOM and for taxa involved in down-stream nitrogen cycling processes. Moreover, the
62 bacterial community response would likely rely on the availability and nature of the nitrogenous
63 DOM and depend on bacterioplankton community composition and contemporary environmental
64 conditions. Hence, responses are expected to differ between localities. While these assumptions
65 appear logical, they have to our knowledge not been experimentally verified.

66 The Baltic Sea is the second largest estuarine system in the world and encompasses
67 separate sub-basins with unique geology and a strong north-south salinity gradient driven by river
68 outlets (Rönnberg and Bonsdorff, 2004). The north is characterized by high DOM concentrations
69 and phosphorous (P) limited plankton production whereas the south has lower DOM
70 concentrations and N limited plankton productivity (Bernes, 2005; Rowe *et al.*, 2018). Further,
71 catchment characteristics vary from primarily forest in the north to agricultural landscapes in the
72 south. The gradient in biogeochemistry is also reflected in extensive changes in microbial
73 community composition from north to south (Herlemann *et al.*, 2011). Climate change is predicted
74 to increase precipitation and the allochthonous DOM input via rivers to the Baltic Sea (Andersson
75 *et al.*, 2015). The loading and characteristics of the DOM will likely affect the future microbial
76 community composition, activity, DOM utilization, and nutrient biogeochemistry in the Baltic Sea
77 (Traving *et al.*, 2017; Rowe *et al.*, 2018). However, responses will conceivably vary between north
78 and south due to differences in catchments, characteristics of the incoming DOM, and
79 composition of the recipient microbial communities.

80 In the present study we examined effects of riverine DOM loading in incubation
81 experiments in two contrasting environments; the southern Baltic Sea (Øresund) after the spring

82 bloom and in the northern Baltic Sea (Storfjärden) in summer (Fig. S1). After the spring bloom,
83 Øresund surface water is typically N depleted whereas the surface water at Storfjärden typically
84 has higher N and DOM concentrations during the summer. We tested the effects of allochthonous
85 DOM loads at both sites by additions of river water from an agricultural and a forest (humic)
86 catchment area, and examined the microbial community composition (16S rRNA genes), the
87 abundance of nitrogen cycling genes (reflecting the metabolic capacities) and the activity of
88 ammonia oxidizers. Since effects on community composition and the composition of functional
89 genes may not be detectable during short-time incubations, we chose to examine changes in
90 functional gene transcription (as a proxy for activity), namely, quantifying the transcription of
91 *amoA* genes (coding for ammonia monooxygenase) - genes involved in nitrification - which is a
92 critical N cycling process facilitating N loss through coupled nitrification-denitrification in the Baltic
93 Sea coastal zone (Hietanen *et al.*, 2012). We anticipated temporal functional succession and
94 treatment-specific responses to our manipulations, and further that effects would differ between
95 the two localities with a more modest response in the relatively DOM and nitrogen-rich northern
96 locality.

97

98 Experimental procedures

99 *Experimental setup for Exp I and Exp II*

100 The setup described here was part of a larger experiment reported elsewhere (Markussen *et al.*,
101 2018). Microcosm experiments with the same setup were conducted at the Marine Biological
102 Laboratory (University of Copenhagen, Denmark) using Øresund water (Exp I) and at the
103 Tvärminne Zoological Field station (University of Helsinki, Finland) using water from Storfjärden,

104 Gulf of Finland (Exp II). The microcosms consisted of three treatments in triplicates (control in 6
105 replicates) including control, addition of water from a humic river (hereafter DOMhum) and an
106 agricultural river (DOMagri). Water was collected on April 20th 2015, Øresund (56°3' 26.4" N,
107 12°38'44.9" E) from 5 m (300 L) and 12 m (10 L) depth, and on July 27th 2015, at Storfjärden, Gulf
108 of Finland (59°51'11.9"N 23°16'19.2"E) 300 L from 0, 5, and 10 m depth (Fig. S1). The water was
109 prefiltered through a 10 m plankton net, filtered through a 0.22 m capsule filter (Optical XL,
110 Millipore), pooled to ensure homogeneity, and filled into microcosms (10 L PC bottles, Nalgene) to
111 represent 60% of the final volume, except for the controls that were filled to represent 80% final
112 volume. The river water was collected 2 days prior to the start of the experiments from the rivers
113 Lapväärti (62°14'20.6"N 21°34'37.5"E, Finland) and Lielupe (56°48'41.6"N 23°35'04.9"E, Latvia; Fig.
114 S1), filtered through a 0.22 m capsule filter (Optical XL, Millipore), and stored at 4°C until use. The
115 salinity of the river water was adjusted with muffled NaCl to in situ levels of 13.4 (Øresund) and 6
116 (Storfjärden) prior to addition to the microcosms. River water was added to the microcosms
117 representing 20% of the final volume. A plankton inoculum (<10 µm) was added to each batch,
118 representing 20 % of the final volume, to initiate the experiments. The microcosms were
119 incubated in the dark, in a temperature-controlled room at in situ temperature ±3°C. Exp I and Exp
120 II had a duration of 5 and 4 days, respectively. Daily samplings at 09.00 and 21.00 covered a
121 variety of environmental parameters and DNA/RNA sampling.

122 *Bacterial abundance and production, and nutrients*

123 Data were adapted from Markussen *et al.* (2018). Briefly, Samples for bacterial
124 enumeration were fixed with glutaraldehyde (1% final conc., Sigma-Aldrich), stored at -80°C, and
125 later enumerated using SYBR green I (Invitrogen) and a BD FACS Canto II flow cytometer. Bacterial

126 production was measured by ^3H -thymidine incorporation (Fuhrman and Azam, 1982). Ammonium
127 (NH_4^+) concentrations were determined directly from fresh samples using ortho-phthalaldehyde
128 (Holmes *et al.*, 1999) and a rapid flow analyser (Turner Designs Trilogy Laboratory Fluorometer).
129 Nitrate (NO_3^-) and phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) were measured on an auto-analyser according to (Wood *et*
130 *al.*, 2009) and (Murphy and Riley, 1962), respectively. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and nitrogen
131 (DON) was measured on a Shimadzu TOC-L Total Organic Carbon Analyzer (Shimadzu Corporation)
132 as previous described (Paulsen *et al.*, 2017).

133

134 *DNA and RNA sampling and extraction*

135 Water was sampled in situ, from the inoculum, and twice daily from each microcosm during the
136 experiments. One liter water was collected in 1 L PC bottles (Nalgene), immediately mixed with
137 100 ml stop-solution (5% phenol in 99.8% ethanol (Khodursky *et al.*, 2003)), and stored for < 24 h
138 at RT in the dark. Fixed samples were then filtered onto 0.22 μm membrane filters (Durapore
139 GVWP04700, Milipore) and stored at -80°C . Nucleic acids were extracted from the filters using the
140 Allprep kit (Qiagen), and then purified and concentrated using the RNA Clean & Concentrator
141 (Zymo) and Genomic DNA Clean & Concentrator (Zymo). DNA and RNA extracts were quantified
142 using Quant-IT RiboGreen and PicoGreen (Invitrogen), respectively.

143 *16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing and metagenomics*

144 For determining the community composition 16S rRNA genes were amplified from
145 total DNA using the primers Bakt_341F (CCTACGGGNGGCWGCA) and Bakt_805R
146 (GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC) (Herlemann *et al.*, 2011), and products were sequenced with on an
147 Illumina MiSeq paired-end multiplex platform at SciLifeLab/NGI (Solna, Sweden). Raw amplicon

reads were quality trimmed (Trimmomatic ver 0.32), and chimeras removed and reads assigned into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using 97% cut-off in cd-hit-otu (Li *et al.*, 2012). SINA 1.2 (Pruesse *et al.*, 2012) was used against the SILVA database (v. 115) to classify unique OTUs and the relative abundance of each OTU was estimated using an in-house Python script. Sequences were deposited in NCBI SRA (Bioproject number 542 PRJNA435478).

DNA (2-10 ng) from each sample was prepared for metagenomics sequencing with the Rubicon ThruPlex kit (Rubicon Genomics, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA) according to the instructions of the manufacturer. Cleaning steps were performed with MyOne carboxylic acid-coated superparamagnetic beads (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Libraries were sequenced on a HiSeq 2500 (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). On average, 18 million paired-end reads (125 bp) per sample were generated. Raw reads were quality trimmed with Cutadapt (Martin, 2011) from both read ends and duplicate reads were removed with fastuniq (Xu *et al.*, 2012). High quality reads were mapped on the BARM database containing the most informative reference genomes in the Baltic Sea (Alneberg *et al.*, 2018) with Bowtie2 using default parameters (Langmead *et al.*, 2013). The raw counts were calculated from Bedtools histogram output (Quinlan, 2014) and quantitative abundance of reads were annotated using Clusters of Orthologous Groups (COG) (Galperin *et al.*, 2015).

Reverse transcription and quantification of amoA genes and transcripts

cDNA was synthesized using gene-specific reverse primers and the TaqMan Reverse transcription kit (Life Technologies) according to manufacturer's protocol. The RT products from each sample were quantified using PicoGreen and used to calculate the efficiency of the RT

170 reactions (RT factor; conversion factor of RNA to cDNA). PCR amplification using universal 16S
171 rRNA gene primers was tested on RNA extracts to confirm complete DNase digestion.

172 *AmoA* genes and gene transcripts from ammonia oxidizing archaea (AOA) and
173 bacteria (AOB) (β -proteobacteria) were quantified from extracted DNA and RNA (cDNA) according
174 to Happel *et al.* (2018) using a BioRad ddPCR system and the primer sets Arch-amoAF (5 -
175 STAATGGTCTGGCTTAGACG-3') and Arch-amoAR (5'-GCGGCCATCCATCTGTATGT) (Francis *et al.*,
176 2005), and amoA-1F (5-GGGGTTTCTACTGGTGGT-3') and amoA-2R (5-CCCCTCKGSAAAGCCTTCTTC-
177 3) (Rotthauwe *et al.*, 1997), respectively. Each reaction mixture (25 μ l) consisted of 10 μ l Evagreen
178 ddPCR mix (Bio-Rad), 200 nM of each primer, BSA (0.5 g μ l⁻¹) and ca. 20 ng of template. The
179 mixture was loaded with 70 μ l Evagreen droplet generation oil into a droplet generator. PCR was
180 performed in a T100 thermal cycler using a profile of 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of
181 94°C for 30 s and 60°C (AOA) or 53°C (AOB) for 60 s, 1 cycle of 98°C for 10 min, and ending at 4°C.
182 Droplets were read on the droplet reader and data analyzed using the QuantaSoft software (Bio-
183 Rad). Quantification was presented as the number of target molecules per μ l of PCR mixture and
184 converted to copy number per liter seawater using the volume of water filtered. RNA sample
185 quantifications were corrected using the RT factor of each sample. Equal extraction efficiencies for
186 all samples are assumed.

187

188 *Statistical analysis*

189 To compare the bacterial communities, the taxonomic richness (calculated as
190 abundance-based coverage estimator (ACE)) and the Shannon diversity index were estimated
191 (Markussen *et al.*, 2018). Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between bacterial abundance and

192 production data were tested using Dunnett's test (Markussen *et al.*, 2018). Raw counts of
193 EC/PFAM/COGs were normalized to counts per million (cpm) using EdgeR (Robinson *et al.*, 2010)
194 to test for significant differences in COG abundances between control samples and treatments.
195 Only COGs with an FDR <0.05 and p<0.005 were considered significant. Generalized linear models
196 (GLM) were investigated to test for significant correlations between the relative abundances of
197 EC/COG/PFAMs and environmental parameters using the mvabund (Wang *et al.*, 2012) package in
198 R. 16S rRNA gene OTU count data were normalized using DESeq2 (Love *et al.*, 2014) and principal
199 component analysis (PCA) was done using the R package. ANOSIM was done in R to test if
200 community composition differed between sites. ANOVA was used to test if *amoA* gene and
201 transcript abundances differed between treatments. Pearsons product moment coefficients were
202 used to test for correlations between environmental parameters and *amoA* gene and transcript
203 abundances.

204

205 Results and discussion

206 *The effect of agricultural and humic river water DOM on microbial communities*

207 In both experiments, there was a general increase in concentrations of DOC, DON, ammonium
208 (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO_3^-) in the DOMhum and DOMagri treatments relative to the controls. In
209 particular high DON (104 μM) and NO_3 (62 μM) concentrations were found in the DOMagri
210 treatment in Exp I, whereas both river treatments had high DOC concentrations (711 and 756 μM ,
211 respectively; Table 1) in Exp II.

212 Bacterial production (BP) (Fig. 1A, C) and abundance (BA) (Fig. 1B, D) increased
213 significantly over time in both experiments, but with large differences between the experiments.

214 BA (both experiments) and BP (Exp II) were significantly increased in both the DOMagri and
 215 DOMhum treatments compared with the controls, while BP was not significantly stimulated by
 216 either of the treatments in Exp I. The observed growth responses were anticipated to be
 217 accompanied by community dynamics mirrored in composition (16S rRNA genes) and function
 218 (composition and transcription of N cycling genes), based on earlier studies reporting that DOM
 219 can shape bacterioplankton community composition (McCarren *et al.*, 2010; Landa *et al.*, 2015;
 220 Traving *et al.*, 2017). However, a PCA revealed that community composition at the end of the
 221 experiments clustered into site rather than treatment (Fig. 2A). Moreover, the community
 222 composition differed significantly between Exp I and II (ANOSIM, $r^2=0.44$, $p<0.001$) but not
 223 between treatments (ANOSIM, Exp I+II: $r^2=0.04$, $p=0.88$, Exp I: $r^2=0.10$, $p=0.69$, Exp II: $r^2=0.49$,
 224 $p=0.09$). Similarly, Shannon diversity ($r^2 = 0.67$, $p < 0.001$) and taxonomic richness was significantly
 225 higher in Exp II compared to Exp I ($r^2 = 0.24$, $p < 0.001$); however, no significant differences in
 226 alpha-diversity were observed between treatments from the same experiment. Hence, the
 227 changes in bacterial growth were only accompanied by limited shifts in community composition –
 228 and this was observed in both examined environments with marked differences in local
 229 community composition.

230 At the phylum level, e.g. γ -proteobacteria were significantly over-represented in the
 231 DOMagri treatment in Exp I and in both DOMagri and DOMhum in Exp II (Fig. 3A). In Exp II, e.g. β -
 232 proteobacteria were stimulated in the DOMhum treatment relative to the controls. Such
 233 stimulation of β -proteobacteria by DOM has previously been observed for Baltic bacterioplankton
 234 (Kisand and Wikner, 2003; Traving *et al.*, 2017). At the family level, there were several responses
 235 within Proteobacteria (Fig. 3B); e.g. Alteromonadaceae was more abundant in the DOMagri
 236 treatment relative to control in Exp I (DOMagri: 58%; Control: 25%). Within one of the abundant

237 groups, Bacteroidetes, responses were limited (Fig. 3C). Hence, some differences were observed in
238 composition between treatments (Fig. 3), but overall changes were considerably less than the
239 difference between environments (Fig. 2). There are examples of resistant microbial composition
240 withstanding disturbance (e.g. Bowen *et al.*, 2011); however, it may also be that DOC
241 manipulations, as in the current study, only select for some taxa whereas the relative abundance
242 of most taxa remain unchanged. Hence, it appears that overall community structure is a relatively
243 poor predictor of the bacterial growth response, as also suggested by others (Dinasquet *et al.*,
244 2013).

245

246 *Relative abundance of nitrogen cycling genes*

247 It has been suggested that the key level at which to address the assembly and structure of
248 bacterial communities is not taxonomy but rather the more functional level of genes (Burke *et al.*,
249 2011; Krause *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, since N availability affects N cycling genes (e.g. Zhang *et al.*,
250 2013), we hypothesized that the high N concentrations in the added river water would elicit
251 extensive and differential responses in the relative abundance of N cycling genes at the two sites.
252 Nevertheless, as in the compositional analysis, a PCA of the relative abundance of N cycling genes
253 (EC/EggNOG/PFAM; see Table S1) revealed a clustering according to site (ANOSIM, $r^2=0.1944$,
254 $P=0.003$) rather than treatment (ANOSIM, Exp I+II: $r^2=0.06$, $p=0.62$, Exp I: $r^2=0.15$, $p=0.50$, Exp II:
255 $r^2=0.51$, $p=0.037$) (Fig. 2B). Generalized linear models (GLM) showed that the relative abundances
256 of all N cycling genes did not correlate with any environmental parameters in Exp I. In Exp. II, on
257 the other hand, there were significant correlations with NH_4 (LR=1438.8, $p=0.026$), DOC
258 (LR=1592.3, $p=0.011$), DON (LR=1508.8, $p=0.012$) and treatment (LR=2665.3, $p=0.018$). This
259 suggests that while initial natural communities had a significant impact on the functional response

260 to the river water amendments, addition of river water with a high DOC to DON ratio in Exp. II
261 (Table 1) also affected the abundance of N cycling genes.

262 Despite that the community analysis of N cycling genes did not reveal a clustering
263 according to treatment (Fig. 2B), the relative abundance of some specific genes did differ
264 significantly between controls and treatments (see below). However, in line with the above GLM
265 results, more were over- or under- represented in Exp II than Exp I (Fig. 4). This suggests that a
266 universal response (across sites) in N cycling genes due to treatment alone was not the case, but
267 rather that the community of the northern Baltic Sea (Exp II; Storfjärden) was more responsive
268 than that of the southern Baltic Sea (Exp I; Øresund). Reasons for this may include multiple site
269 characteristics or seasonality (sampling in April vs. July); however, it is noteworthy that DOC levels
270 naturally, and in our experiment, are highest in the northern Baltic (Table 1) (Sandberg *et al.*,
271 2004; Rowe *et al.*, 2018). Bacterioplankton in this environment may, therefore, be particularly
272 adapted and responsive to pulses of riverine DOM. In addition, the higher diversity and taxonomic
273 richness of Storfjärden could possibly have benefited the responsiveness of this community.

274 In Exp I, a N₂ fixation related gene (*nifB*, COG0535) and a nitrous oxide reduction
275 gene (*nosZ*, PF13473) were over-represented in the DOMhum treatment relative to the control.
276 Further, both ammonia transporters (COG0004, PF00909) and nitrite/nitrate reductases (PF07732,
277 PF00394, PF04879) were under-represented (Fig. 4A). The DOMagri treatment did not have any
278 significant effect on the relative abundance of N related genes (Fig. 4B). In Exp II, several
279 EC/COG/PFAMs (DOMhum: 20; DOMagri: 13) differed significantly in relative abundance between
280 treatments and controls (Fig. 4C,D). Among these, some of the N₂ fixation related genes were
281 significantly over-represented in the DOMhum treatment (COG1348, PF00142, PF00148, EC

1.18.6.1) while one was under-represented (PF04055) (Fig. 4C). Most ammonia and nitrite/nitrate transporters were under-represented (PF00909, COG0004, PF07690) along with two urease genes (PF07969, PF01979). Both nitrate reductase (EC 1.7.99.4) and nitrous oxide reductases (COG4263, EC 1.7.2.4) were over-represented. In the DOMagri treatment, a single N₂ fixation gene was under-represented (COG0535) while both nitrite/nitrate transporters (COG2223) and nitrous oxide reductases (COG4263, EC 1.7.2.4, EC 1.7.1.14) were over-represented (Fig. 4D).

While there were only few responses in N related genes to the DOMagri treatments, there were several overlaps in the response to the DOMhum treatment between the two experiments. The under-representation of ammonia channel protein AmtB and over-representation of N₂ fixation genes in the DOMhum treatments, both point to possible N limitation (Carini *et al.*, 2018). There were, however, no indications of N limitation when looking at the N:P ratios. The N:P ratios (calculated as (NH₄+NO₃)/PO₄) were highest in the DOMagri treatments in Exp. I and in the DOMhum treatment in Exp. II. Further, the over-representations of nitrate reductases (Exp I) and nitrous oxide reductases (both experiments) could indicate a promotion of some steps of the denitrification pathway by the addition of DOMhum. Denitrification in the Baltic Sea is known from anoxic zones of the water column (Dalsgaard *et al.*, 2013) and from sediments (Silvennoinen *et al.*, 2007).

Abundance and activity of ammonia oxidizing archaea (AOA) and bacteria (AOB)

To quantitatively assess the impact of the treatments on functional gene abundance and transcription, digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) was used to enumerate *amoA* genes and transcripts of AOA and AOB in each experiment initially, after 44-45 h, and at the end of each experiment (Fig. 5). The ddPCR method was chosen because of its documented ability to quantify *amoA* genes from

304 Baltic Sea waters (Happel *et al.* 2018). For principles and details of the ddPCR methodology, please
305 see the recent study by Happel and co-authors (2018).

306 Although *amoA* gene and transcript abundances of both AOA and AOB were dynamic
307 over time, there was no significant treatment effect on *amoA* abundances. There were, however,
308 significant differences between the *amoA* transcript abundances of DOMhum and control
309 treatments in Exp I for both AOA (one-way ANOVA; $F=11.7$, $p=0.011$ and one-way ANOVA on
310 ranks; $Q=2.6$, $p=0.014$) and AOB (one-way ANOVA on ranks; $Q=2.32$, $p=0.024$ and $Q=2.55$, $P=0.032$,
311 respectively) at the beginning of the experiment. In both experiments, we found abundances of
312 AOA ($3.9 \times 10^3 - 7.3 \times 10^4$ copies L^{-1}) and AOB ($4.2 \times 10^3 - 5.4 \times 10^4$ copies L^{-1}) in similar ranges,
313 whereas *amoA* gene transcription was dominated by AOB (up to 1.5×10^9 copies L^{-1} for AOB and
314 1.5×10^8 copies L^{-1} for AOA). Concentrations of AOA and AOB were remarkably low compared to
315 coastal environments (Beman *et al.*, 2008, Hollibaugh *et al.*, 2011), but similar to the Yangtze River
316 estuary (Zhang *et al.*, 2014) and to our previous study on ammonia oxidizers in the south and
317 north of the Baltic Sea (Happel *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, the dominance of *amoA* transcripts from
318 AOB also matches our previous Baltic Sea study (Happel *et al.*, 2018). Surprisingly, there was no
319 significant stimulation of *amoA* gene abundances from AOA or AOB by the addition of riverine
320 DOM in either experiment and *amoA* gene transcription was in fact reduced in the DOMhum
321 treatments relative to controls. This could be interpreted as a sign of ammonia limitation (Carini *et*
322 *al.*, 2018), however, since *amoA* gene transcription from AOB was negatively correlated with DOC
323 in Exp I (Pearson correlation, $r=-0.34$, $p=0.04$), we speculate that ammonia oxidizers were
324 hampered by the introduction of riverine DOC – potentially the sudden availability of labile
325 riverine carbon is at odds with the chemolithoautotrophic life strategy of ammonia oxidizers
326 (Strauss and Lamberti, 2000; Strauss *et al.*, 2002).

327

328 Concluding remarks

329 Despite that the addition of river water caused several folds increase in bacterial growth in both
330 the Øresund and Storfjärden experiments, only specific sub-populations and N cycling processes
331 were affected by the treatments, whereas overall community composition and the collective pool
332 of examined N cycling genes remained relatively unaffected. This may support the notion that
333 many bacterioplankton species are generalists and less responsive to transient changes in the DOC
334 pool (Mou *et al.*, 2008), and that the linkage between identity and specialized DOC utilization is
335 valid only within some phyla or among specific sub-populations (Dinasquet *et al.*, 2013).
336 Interestingly, treatment effects on nitrification were only observed at the transcription level, and
337 not the gene level. This observation underlines that functional responses in key N cycling
338 processes in bacterioplankton may not always be accompanied by selection affecting community
339 composition. Our study included several experimental variables like seasons and river inocula
340 which prevents firm comparisons between the two localities; south and north in the Baltic Sea.
341 Nevertheless, the higher responsiveness of the community in Storfjärden to riverine DOM sources
342 is noteworthy. If coupled with the projected future increases in precipitation and outlet of
343 allochthonous DOM (Andersson *et al.*, 2015), we speculate that the coastal zones in the Northern
344 Baltic Sea will undergo more dramatic future changes in N cycling regimes than the communities
345 in the Øresund. However, focused studies are needed in order to validate this hypothesis.

346

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353

354 References

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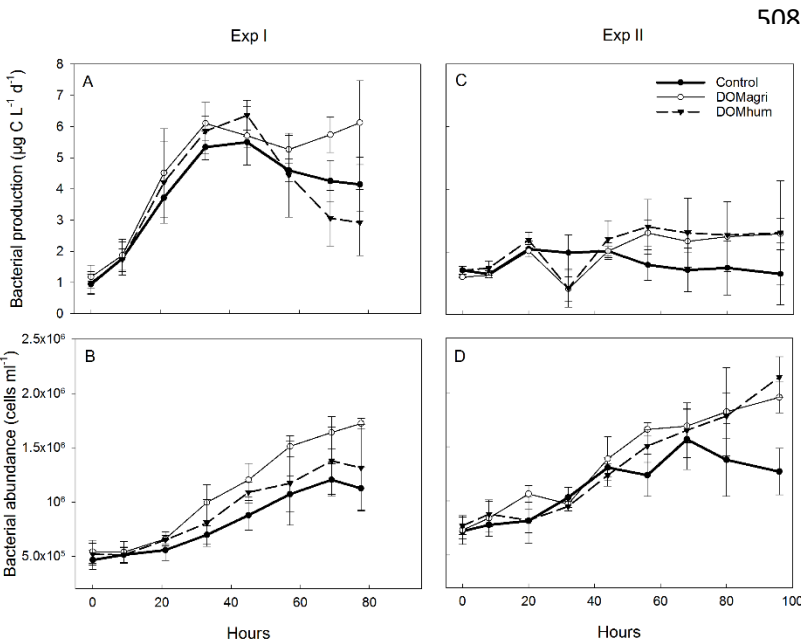
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507 Table and figure legends



515

516 Figure 1. Bacterial abundance and bacterial production during Exp I (Øresund) (A, B) and Exp II
517 (Storfjärden) (C, D) for the controls and the agriculture (DOMagri) and the humic (DOMhum) river
518 water treatments. Data are adapted from Markussen *et al.* (2018). Error bars indicated SD of
519 biological triplicates (6 replicates in control samples).

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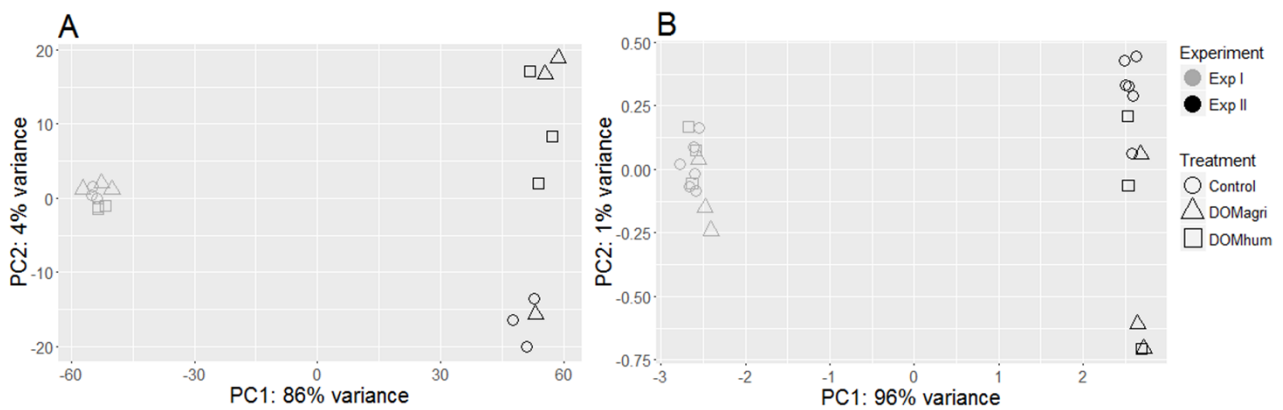
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527 Figure 2. Principal component analysis (PCA) of community composition (based on 16S rRNA
 528 sequencing; A) and nitrogen related genes (EC/eggNOG/PFAM) (metagenomics sequencing; B) at
 529 the end of Exp I (Øresund) and Exp II (Storfjärden) for the controls and the agriculture (DOMagri)
 530 and humic (DOMhum) river water treatments. For separate PCA of each experiment; see Figure
 531 S2.

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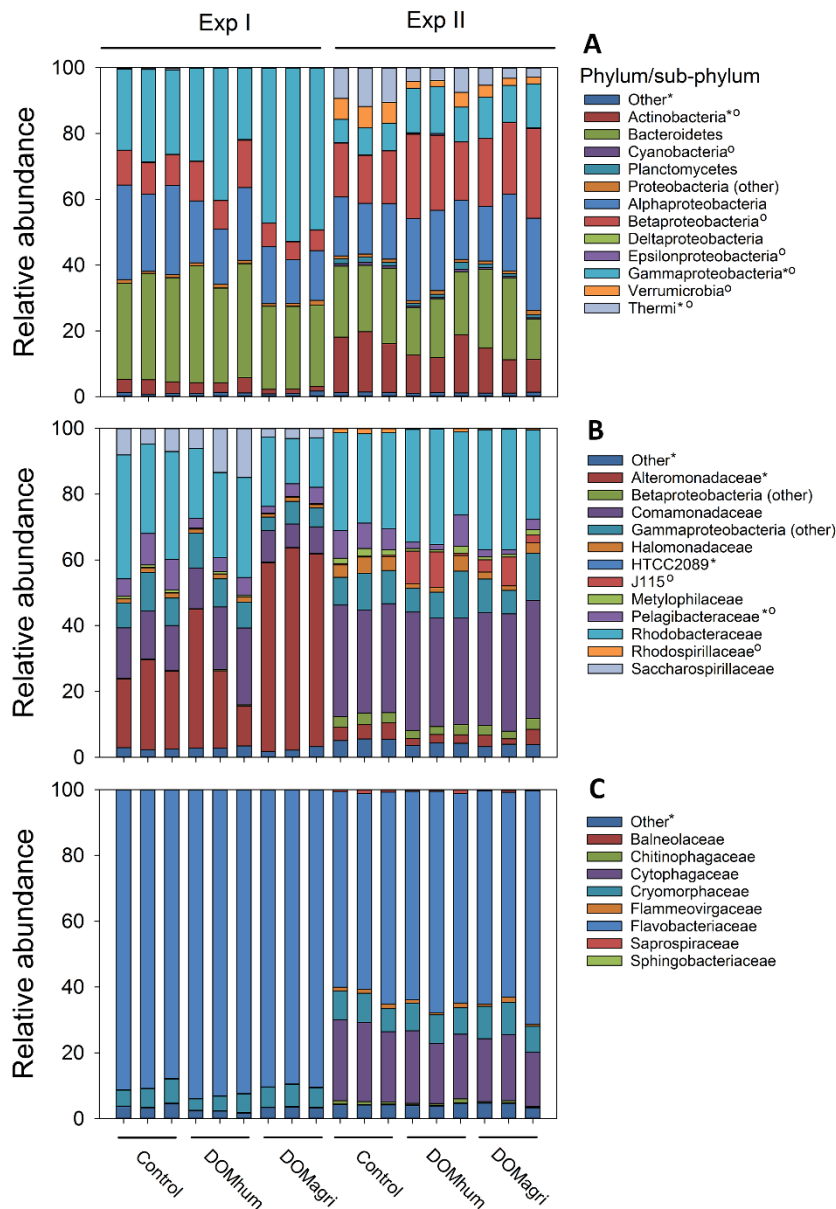
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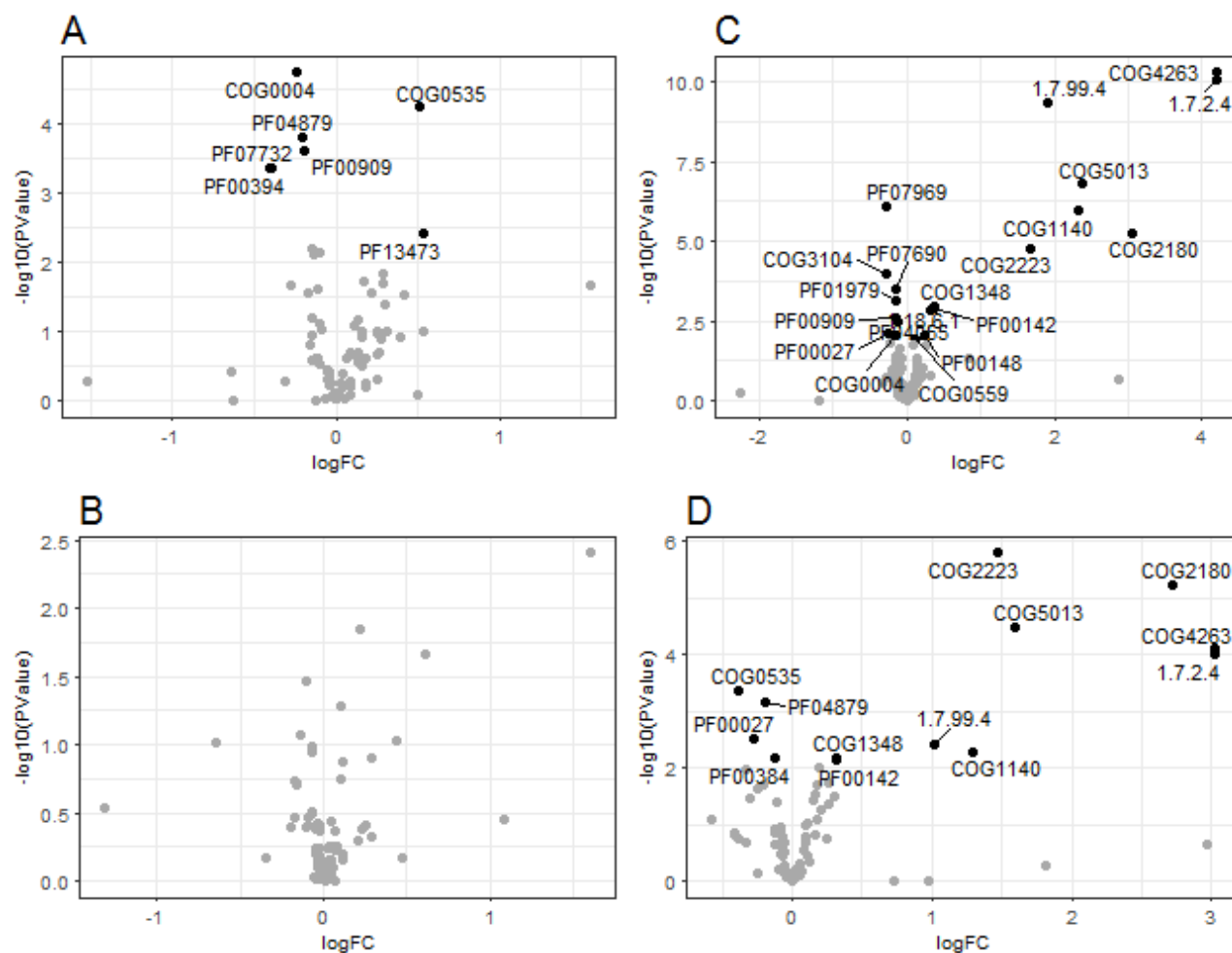
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554 Figure 3. Relative abundance of phyla/sub-phyla (A), families within Proteobacteria (B) and
 555 Bacteroidetes (C) at the end of Exp I (Øresund) and II (Storfjärden) for the controls and the
 556 agriculture river water (DOMagri) and the humic river water (DOMhum) treatments. Significant
 557 differential abundances for each group between treatments were tested using EdgeR and
 558 indicated for Exp I (*) and Exp II (°).

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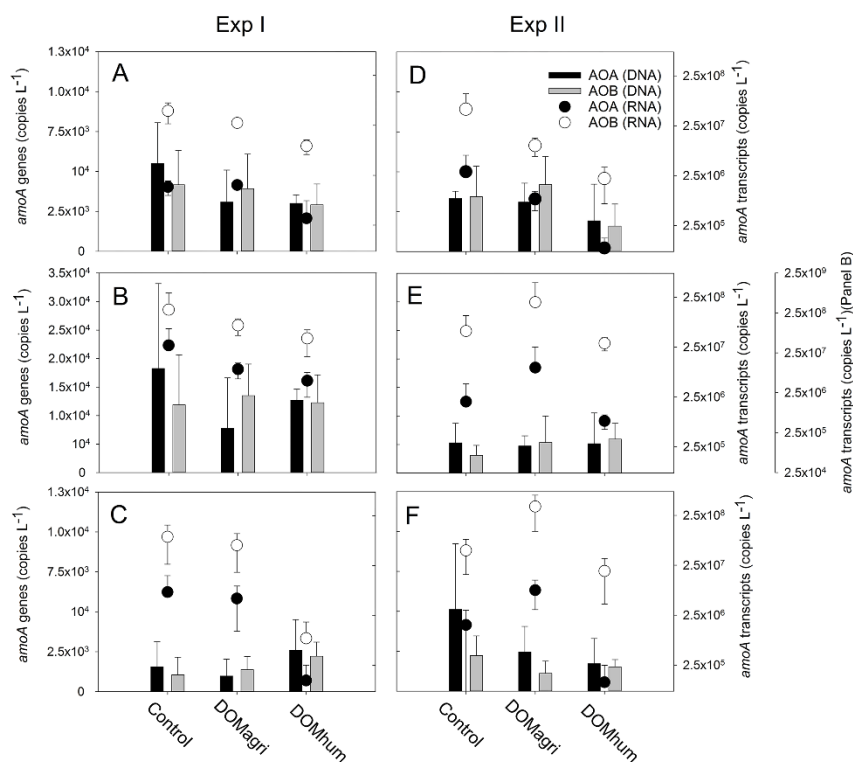
561 Figure 4. Volcano plots showing up- and down- represented EC/PFAM/COGs in Exp I (A, B) and Exp
 562 II (C, D) for the controls and the humic (DOMhum)(A, C) and the agriculture (DOMagri) (B, D) river
 563 water treatments. Significantly differentially abundant EC/PFAM/COGs are marked with black
 564 dots.

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577 Figure 5. Archaeal (AOA) and bacterial (AOB) *amoA* gene and transcript abundances at the start of
 578 the experiments (A,D), after 44-45 hours (B,E) and at the end of the experiments (C,F) for Exp I
 579 (left) and Exp II (right) for the controls and the agriculture (DOMagri) and humic (DOMhum) river
 580 water treatments. Note the different scales in (B). Error bars indicated SD of biological triplicates
 581 (6 replicates for control samples).

582

583 Table 1

584

	Exp I (Øresund, Southern Baltic Sea)			Exp II (Storfjärden, Northern Baltic Sea)		
Treatment	Control	DOMhum	DOMagri	Control	DOMhum	DOMagri
DOC (µM)	381.50 (13.66)	552.67 (51.43)	481.67 (78.23)	555.50 (80.77)	711.33 (66.98)	756.00 (59.43)
DON (µM)	47.37 (0.37)	51.97 (1.34)	103.57 (15.97)	48.05 (2.16)	51.77 (1.27)	57.10 (0.90)
NH ₄ (µM)	0.57 (0.02)	0.94 (0.12)	1.03 (0.04)	0.35 (0.03)	0.54 (0.03)	1.12 (0.01)
PO ₄ (µM)	0.06 (0.03)	0.20 (0.02)	0.19 (0.08)	0.09 (0.04)	0.08 (0.02)	0.09 (0.10)
NO ₃ (µM)	1.74 (0.19)	3.63 (0.66)	61.87 (9.35)	0.27 (0.08)	2.60 (0.66)	0.56 (0.08)

585

586 Table 1. Concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved organic nitrogen (DON)

587 ammonium (NH₄), phosphate (PO₄) and nitrate (NO₃) in the treatments at the beginning of the

588 experiments for the control, the agriculture river water treatment (DOMagri) and the humic river

589 water treatment (DOMhum). Standard deviations in brackets.

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